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Pease*

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BOSTON GRAMMAR AND WRITING SCHOOLS.

We have been waiting long and almost impatiently for the appearance of the Annual Report, for 1847, of the Visiting Committees of the Boston Grammar and Writing Schools. It has come at last, in the shape of an octavo of more than two hundred pages. The larger part of the volume is occupied by the Report of the Committee on the Grammar Schools, drawn up by George B. Emerson, Esq.

As no school reports are now more eagerly sought for than those emanating from the Boston Committees, we shall devote considerable space to the document before us.

In the first place, we are glad to see an educational report whose typography and literary execution are so generally faultless as is Mr. Emerson's, on the Grammar Schools. It is a deplorable and shameful fact, that not only educational reports, but Periodicals devoted to education, are published amongst us, which bear on their imprint the names of those who glory in the title of "Practical Teachers," and of which almost every page is deformed and dishonored by a score of errors in orthography, grammar and punctuation. This may supply a good argument in favor of better schools, but it is discreditable to the country, and to the cause of education. Notwithstanding the possible, or *probable* recoil of the remark upon ourselves, yet we say, without hesitation, that every man who undertakes to write a report, or publish a work on education, ought to show, by his deeds, that he himself has profited by the ministry in which he serves.

We are glad to see that Mr. Emerson practically condemns the indiscriminate use of the *dash*, as a substitute for intelligent punctuation. This use or abuse of the dash, is a growing nuisance among the literary writers of the day. When improperly used, it not only offends a correct and critical taste, but it generally obscures the sense; and it is, in most cases, nothing but a cloak worn to conceal ignorance. The dash has an office peculiarly its own. It should never be allowed to usurp the place of comma, semi-colon or colon. When used, it should always, with a single exception, be used with one or another of

these marks. The exception embraces that class of cases, where the dash is designed not only to suspend the voice and the sense, but to open the way for something unexpected, for surprise,—as in the following sentence: "The only certain remedy for the evils of Freedom is—*Freedom*." Here the reader pauses before uttering the last word, as if to lift up the idea, that it may fall with a greater momentum.

We always rejoice to see a work in which the errors of a literary or typographical character are so few that they can be computed without a resort to the higher mathematics. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to attain absolute perfection in this matter. As was once said by the editor of the Boston Courier, a proof-reader, if he would detect all mistakes, must be like the beast in Revelation, having eyes before and behind. Still, when a writer knows enough to avoid frequent and grave errors, he knows enough to scatter a thousand beauties of literary elegance and finish over his pages, which a scholar will always recognize, rejoice at and acknowledge.

We should, however, like to know whether Mr. Emerson has used, purposely or inadvertently, the form of expression, "*four first*," and "*three first*," (see pp. 15 and 16,) instead of *first four* and *first three*; what he thinks of the phrase "ever *get* to be," on page 17; what, of using the article *the* before the participial form of the verb, without the preposition *of* after it, as in the sentence, "The true use of the oral process is not for the perfecting orthography," &c., (p. 18,) instead of *for perfecting orthography*, or *for the perfecting of orthography*; and what of the *congruity* of the tenses in the following sentence: "—— if the latter number *could be* arranged in one descending line, to be divided into classes or sections, according to their progress, the divisions for the teachers would be six times as large as if one hundred *had been* so arranged." (p. 52.) Once near the beginning, and several times towards the close of the report, the colon is used, in obvious contradiction to the rule of punctuation which seems to have governed the author of the Report, throughout its other pages.

Does any one ask, why we notice any defects in the midst of so many excellences; we answer, that one may lawfully amuse himself by pointing out a few microscopic specks, floating on the surface of a chrystal fountain, when he would consider it not only useless but grievous to attempt the same thing with regard to a mud-puddle.

Mr. Emerson's remarks on "Moral Instruction" are earnest and admirable; but on this topic, the school committee should not stop with advice; they should insist upon action. If a Master fails to give moral instruction to his pupils, or to set a high and pure moral example before them by his own words and life, it should work a forfeiture of his office, a hundred times more speedily and certainly than if he should fail to ad-

vance them in grammar or arithmetic. And, making all due allowance for the materials upon which each Master works, he should be judged *by the results which he attains*, and not by any *alleged*, or even *proved* diligence in the means employed. There are certain objects of moral education which every competent and *permanent* teacher can reach ; and therefore,—to state the same proposition in another form,—if a *permanent* teacher does not reach these objects, he is not competent, and should be dismissed. How saddening and afflictive is the following declaration in the report, especially that part of it which we italicize :—“Not only is not a sufficiently important place given to moral instruction, but even the requisitions of the law are not complied with. *If there is a single public school in which all that is demanded by the law is done, the committee are not acquainted with that school.*” This was said after weeks spent in examining the schools.

In the particular enumeration of the schools, and the special description of each, individually, only one is mentioned as being the object of special moral effort. Mr. Stearns, of the Mather school, has the honor of being thus referred to. It is obvious, however, that the good general condition of several other schools could never have been secured, without a very commendable degree of moral training.

We quote the entire passage on the subject of moral instruction, and we would exhort all teachers to mark the beautiful enumeration of virtues and duties contained in its second paragraph, and to make each one of them a topic or text, for special remark and illustration, as suitable occasions may offer, in their respective schools. Teachers may get *crowns* by intellectual teaching ; but by moral teaching, they will get *crowns of glory*.

“The passage already quoted from the laws of Massachusetts, defining and enforcing the duty of the teachers in the Common Schools, in respect to moral instruction, shows distinctly what is meant by moral instruction, and to what points it should be extended. The bare recital of this law proves that in this particular there is a great defect in our Public Schools. Not only is not a sufficiently important place given to moral instruction, but even the requisitions of the law are not complied with. If there is a single Public School in which all that is demanded by the law is done, the committee are not acquainted with that school. This is not a creditable fact. In most cases, the laws of the State are made as ‘a terror to evil-doers.’ The standard of that man must be very low who aims at nothing higher than a mere obedience to the laws ; and he must be considered a bad citizen whose conduct does not come up to their requirements.

“The importance of moral instruction is not overstated in the law ; and it is incumbent upon every good citizen who has

oversight of the schools, to see that this part of the teacher's duty shall not be neglected ; that this wise and excellent law shall be obeyed, according to its spirit and purpose. The teachers may be good men. They may be persons of irreproachable life ; and they may thus exert over their pupils the influence of a pure and elevated character. But this is not enough. In the schools for citizens, the duties of citizens should be taught. There are certain points which ought to be presented to the minds of children, and that forcibly and frequently, not only by the life and example, but in the language of their teachers. Those great primary duties enumerated in the statute must not be neglected. The infinite value of a love of truth, of justice, of integrity, of fidelity in contracts, of industry, of personal purity, of charitableness in judgment, should be pointed out, and earnestly inculcated. The reciprocal relations and duties of parents and children, of employers and employed, of masters and servants, of buyers and sellers, should be explained and enforced. The duty of self-control, of self-education, of improving all one's faculties, of economy in the use of time ; the beauty of generosity, of kindness and courtesy, and of an honorable and manly character ; the value of diligence and of knowledge, the excellence of good habits and the danger of bad ones ; the shamefulness of foul, indecent and profane language ; the cowardliness of deception, and the baseness of imposing upon the weak and the simple,—all these things should be taught in every good school. But in Public schools, like ours, which bring together children, many of whom never receive, elsewhere, moral instruction, even of the lowest kind, the consequences and the punishments of pilfering, of false witness, of false swearing, and of the other violations of the laws of God and of the land, ought to be pointed out with terrible distinctness.

“ The great difference, in a moral point of view, between a school and a prison, is that one is intended to prevent what the other aims to punish. It should, therefore, be the object of teachers to prevent the commission of offences, rather than to punish them when committed ; to keep the moral character in a healthy state, rather than to heal its diseases. In this way, and in this way only, can our schools be made substitutes for jails and houses of correction.

“ Still further ; the moral faculties, those which distinguish between right and wrong, are, like all the other faculties belonging to man, susceptible of cultivation ; and when we consider the wretched moral position of many of the children who come into our schools ; the fact, that in some of the schools there are many, in all there are some, who, if not taught duty at school, will not be taught it anywhere ; we cannot doubt that one leading object of the discipline, regulations and instruction of our schools should be the cultivation of the moral nature of the children, and their instruction in duty.

"Every teacher has more or less power over the will and affections of his pupils. The most highly endowed have a power, which, in its far-reaching consequences, can hardly be overestimated. Some portion of this power should be always purposely exerted in the direction of duty and moral character. But moral instruction cannot be given, any more than any other work in school can be done, without devoting to it special preparation and a stated time. The best time for the purpose is the still hour of the early morning. The worst would be in the weariness, haste and bustle of the last hour of the day. The lesson needs not to be a long one; it must not be a tedious one. The example of good men, or anecdotes of their lives and character,—Washington's absolute regard for truth, his faultless punctuality,—Marshall's stopping in the street to assist in collecting the scattered chickens of the poor market-woman,—Fenelon's bringing back the cow to the peasant's family,—and similar facts, might often be employed to interest the learner, and thus be made the vehicle of impressive moral instruction. And if instruction of this kind were always faithfully given in connection with intellectual discipline, the question whether education has or has not a tendency to diminish vice and crime, would probably never again arise." (pp. 39-42.)

Before giving an account of the actual condition of the schools, the committee present, in an interrogative form, the following excellent synopsis of the main objects of a Common School:

"Is the instruction suited to all classes of the children? Are all the children, within the ages for which public instruction should be provided, brought into the schools? Are the things taught which ought to be taught, and is *all* taught which ought to be taught? Are the methods of instruction what they should be? Does the instruction give the learner the necessary qualifications for the business, the privileges and the duties of life? Does the instruction in reading tend to form habits of easy, fluent and intelligent reading? Does it create a love for the best kind of reading? Does the instruction in geography furnish the learner with a knowledge of the things most important to be known in regard to the various parts of the earth? Does the instruction in history present the most important events? Does the instruction in grammar teach the pupils to write and speak the language correctly and with readiness? Does the discipline of the schools tend to form habits of self-control, of kindness, gentleness and generosity, of diligence, activity and perseverance? Is a proper distinction made between what is necessary for the education of girls and what for boys? Are the boys formed to be good, virtuous and capable citizens; and the girls prepared for the duties and requirements of women, who are to be the teachers of the coming generation?"

In describing the condition of the respective schools, a broad distinction is made between the first class, or the first division of the first class, and the lower classes. The general examining committee do not take time to make a thorough examination of the *whole* school. The Rules of the Board require them to examine only the first class; and, practically, says this committee, the "annual examinations — are proper examinations of the first class only."

In the Report of a sub-committee, also drawn up by Mr. Emerson, and now appended to the principal report, we are told that the first class in all the Grammar Schools, constitutes but eighteen hundredths, or less than one fifth, of the whole number of pupils. The first division of the first classes constitutes but seventy-seven thousandths, or much less than one tenth. Yet to this number,—less than one fifth, or sometimes less than one tenth,—"the greater part of the time and attention of the Head Masters is given." Each of these Masters receives a salary of \$1500 a year, while their female assistants have not more than \$325 a year. The latter, with occasionally a male usher, have charge of more than four fifths, sometimes of more than nine tenths, of the children. Now, if one fifth of a school has the benefit of an expenditure of \$3000; then four fifths, on the same ratio, should have the benefit of an expenditure of \$12,000; and if less than one tenth has this benefit, then the proportion of nine tenths would be more than \$27,000; but now they have much less than as many hundreds. What an unrighteous disproportion! Is not this aristocracy, in its worst form! And what immensely enhances and aggravates this injustice is the fact that "a very large portion of the pupils never rise to the first class; a great majority never get beyond the second class."

The cause of this egregious inequality,—and here inequality is iniquity,—is suggested to be, that the rules of the board require the examination of the first classes only; and that, in practice, this examination is sometimes confined to the first division of the first class. In the examination by written questions, whose results are given in the present report, only 360 were examined, out of more than eight thousand children belonging to the schools; and even this small number was selected by the Masters themselves. The suggestion then is, that, as a few only of the children in each school are to be examined, the Masters expend themselves on this few. They do not give their time and attention to the whole school, but concentrate both upon a few *Show-Scholars*. They are preparing, not the great body of the children *for life*, but one fifth, or one tenth of them for a show-off *on examination day*. They reverse the rule which aims at the greatest good of the greatest number. It is the greatest good of the smallest number, which they seek for; and this, too, not for the sake even of this number, small as it is, but to build up the reputation of—*themselves*.

The committee speak of this great public grievance as the "lamentable but legitimate consequence" of the action of the school board. They say, "the Head Masters act naturally and reasonably, in giving special care to that part of their work which they know will be carefully examined." Now, we must, most respectfully, but none the less earnestly, protest against this affirmation. Substantially to neglect four fifths, or nine tenths, of the children in a school, for the sake of preparing one fifth or one tenth to appear well on examination day, or to display themselves before strangers visiting the school, has no glimmer of reason or conscience in it. We ask, with all deference, if any better test to prove the existence or non-existence of a conscience could be devised? When a man does his duty only so far as he is liable to be called to account, he acts not from conscience, but from policy. It is fidelity in the performance of duties for which we are *not* to be called to account, that proves the existence of conscience. We venture to aver, therefore, that the course of those Masters whom the committee here seem to defend, is not "reasonable," but most unreasonable and unrighteous; and, if "natural," it is only natural to an unfaithful servant.

How much to be deplored is one of the consequences of this course of proceeding. The committee say, "In the third class, [of the Grammar Schools,] the reading is often in no respect superior to that of the more forward children in the Primary Schools."—"Children are found, who have been a year or two years, in the Grammar Schools, no further advanced than when they were *promoted* from the Primary Schools. They have been seemingly stationary. They have made no perceptible progress." Now here, the children, according to the representation of the committee, do not come up to the class of "*hibernating animals*." Hibernation, in a zoölogical sense, implies torpidity and apparent death, *only during the winter season*. But here is intellectual death during the summer also;—nay, during two successive winters and two successive summers!

The generality of the committee's remarks on this great and unconscionable evil is qualified in regard to a few of the Masters; and we have reason to believe there is more difference among them than would be inferred from a perusal of the report. Without intending to give too much importance to appellatives, every body knows that there is now an "*Old School*" and a "*New School*," among the Boston Masters. We believe those belonging to the "New School" are really striving to be "faithful in the things," whether many or few, that are committed to their charge.

The committee discriminate, in speaking of the progress of the schools, in the study of geography. "In mathematical geography, the examination was, almost uniformly, very satisfactory."—"In physical geography, the appearance was ex-

tremely various ;—sometimes highly creditable, sometimes far otherwise ; and this diversity was still more striking in civil and political geography." The committee close their remarks on this topic, in the following words : " At present, in all the classes, a little of physical geography, a little of political, and a little of many other things, is attempted, and very little is accomplished."

May not the reason of these grievous failures be found in the fact, that so little attention is paid to map-drawing ? In the detailed description of the schools, some three or four of them are mentioned with special commendation, for their attention to map-drawing, or their skill acquired in it. From this, it is to be inferred that those not included in the praise, for their works, are excluded, for their neglect. Indeed, the maps of 1844, show in what a deplorable condition the schools then were, in this indispensable branch.

Now every one may be ready to admit that the neglect of map-drawing must have a disastrous effect upon attainments in *physical* geography ; but some may not be ready to acknowledge its connection with *civil* and *political*. The latter supposition would be a great error ; and the sooner all teachers understand it and heed it, the better for their schools and for themselves. Without map-drawing, the great frame-work of the earth,—the direction and extent of mountain ranges, the length and course of rivers, the shape of continents and oceans, as marked by their line of contact,—will never be understood ; and unless these are understood, the children *will not have definite places in which to locate the facts of civil and political geography*. Unless a child knows certainly where a river is, he cannot give a city any "local habitation" on its banks. Unless a child knows precisely where a nation or state is, he cannot assign its metropolis to a particular spot. And unless a child knows positively where city and metropolis are, he cannot remember their population, their trade, their arts, their curiosities, or any thing else that belongs to them. All this, too, is true, respecting commerce, natural productions, education, religion, &c. &c. In order to retain a knowledge of these, one must give them a locality ; he must know the lines between co-terminous nations ; and he will rarely, if ever, know these, without a preliminary knowledge of the great natural features of the earth. Without a knowledge of physical geography, therefore, all the facts of civil and political geography, which one may acquire, will be floating about in space, as unstable as cast-off leaves in a forest, or drift-wood on the ocean.

But mathematical geography has comparatively little connection with physical geography ; and hence we can understand why the attainments of the children in the Boston Schools are respectable in the former, while so very deficient in the latter.

We would earnestly enjoin it upon all teachers, to build no

hopes of ultimate success in the departments of civil and political geography, except upon a sure foundation of the facts of physical geography. For this, map-drawing is indispensable; because there can be no security that a pupil has a knowledge of the localities of the earth in his head, until he can get them out of the ends of his fingers.

In History, we should infer, that the schools appeared decidedly better than in geography.

"In no other study," say the committee, "which came under the examination of the committee, was there such a breadth of difference, in the several schools, as in that of grammar. Some masters, as if they had just waked up from a sleep of a quarter of a century, retain all the obsolete and threadbare technicalities of Murray, as though the highest object in school life were skill in parsing, which, when you come to hear the skilful parser's conversation, or read his composition, you see he never conceived of as having any relation to either.* Some Masters retain the old system, and, from its dry, harsh and barren husks, draw a precious kernel for use; teaching well, in spite of their text-book. Others take a view of language incomparably more philosophical than ever occurred to Murray, or to any of his followers. It was mournful to think of the time which must have been spent in acquiring the astonishing facility sometimes exhibited in a process so useless as to most persons that of routine-parsing is. It was mortifying to hear a set of rules constantly quoted, one half of which are violations of the language of which they profess to be the canons. But it is encouraging to perceive that from various quarters light is breaking in. The analysis of sentences given by the pupils in some of the schools, especially the Eliot, the Endicott, the Mayhew and the Phillips, was excellent, indicating in the teachers enlightened views in regard to language."

We gave, in our last number, the questions submitted to a few of the children in Geography, Grammar, History and Language.

In answering the 1st, 12th, 15th and 16th questions in history, the children wrote 1564 sentences, and these sentences contained 26422 words. In writing these, they made 208 mistakes in Spelling; 376 in Capitalizing, 1170 in Punctuation, and 148 in Grammar. On an average, there was considerably more than one error to a sentence, short as the sentences were; and more than *one* error to every *fourteen* words. In a book of the size and type of this Journal, this would give nearly one error to each line. This host of errors was committed by about 360 children, selected by the Masters themselves, from 8000;—children selected *for* the first class, and then selected

*"I don't like this ere school," said a girl who had been parsing very nicely, in another school, for a considerable part of seven years, "coz there aint no grammar taught in it."

from the first class, and to whom a great portion of the time of the Masters, for years, had been devoted.

The committee seem disposed to divide the blame of this backward condition of the schools, and to transfer no inconsiderable part of it from the Masters to the system in which they work,—that is, the system of two independent heads for each school. A pertinent question would here be, whether the Masters have not upheld, and do not still uphold the system itself, which is here made their scape-goat. Will any man say, that if they were to pronounce against it, it would not be abolished at the next meeting of the school committee? While they uphold it, or, so far as they uphold it, are they not justly responsible for *all* its consequences?

The report avers respecting this system, that it “has been considered an evil by nearly every committee of this Board which has alluded to it, for at least seventeen years. It was regarded as a nuisance to be instantly abated by the present distinguished Chief Justice of the Commonwealth. It has been so regarded by nearly all persons of intelligence ever since. Whenever presented, in conversation or in any other way, as part of a system, it has been presented only as a thing to be avoided,” &c. &c.

This system is generally known by the name of the Double-headed system. It should be called the Hydra-headed system; for if the most unanswerable arguments can do the work of decapitation, its heads have been chopped off a hundred times. Yet, like the Lernean’s, they ever sprout out anew; and they will continue to do so, until, as in the case of its prototype, the wound shall be seared by fire,—the fire of public indignation at the condition of most of the schools.

We cannot adequately express our astonishment that some of the Masters do not see where their true interest lies, and sue for an immediate divorce from this unnatural and certainly unblessed union. Let us look at two schools taken at random,—one Boys’ and one Girls’,—the Johnson and the Phillips. So far as the quality of the “materials” is concerned, these schools are among the very best in the city, and therefore should rank as high as any, in both departments. But look at the result, as exhibited by the tables before us. In its percentage of correct answers, the mean standing of the Grammar department of the Johnson School, in the four branches of Geography, Grammar, History and Language, is 42 1-2 per cent. But the standing of the Writing department of the same school, in Natural Philosophy, is only 27 per cent.; in written arithmetic, it is only 30 per cent.,—the lowest but one in all the tables;—and in oral arithmetic, it is the very lowest of all the unmixed schools. Here, then, are as good “materials,” as any in the city, sunk down, by the weight of the Master to the very lowest, or next to the lowest, in it.

Look too, at the Phillips School. Here the mean average in the four studies belonging to the Grammar department, shows a per-centage of correct answers of only 37 3-4 per cent. ; while, in natural philosophy, which belongs to the Writing department, the per-centage of correct answers rises to 61 ; in written arithmetic, it is 52 ; and in *oral*, taking 10 as representing the best school, it is 8 ; or, the mean standing of the Writing department is 61 per cent. against 37 3-4 in the Grammar department. Now who does not know, that the Grammar Master in the first case, and the Writing Master in the second, must suffer immensely from his connection. Considering the character of the pupils, why should not the Johnson school be equal to the Bowdoin, and the Phillips equal to the Brimmer ? The best Master will be disabled and thwarted under the Mezentian fate of having a dead man tied to his back.*

After all, we rejoice at the unmistakeable signs of improvement in the Boston Grammar and Writing Schools. No person can rejoice at this more heartily than we do, or be more ready to acknowledge it. Without any invidious designation of schools, or mentioning of names, we know there are young men now engaged in those schools, who will not suffer them to remain where they are ; but will carry them forward until they shall be worthy of the city which so generously patronizes them.

Notwithstanding the length of this article, we cannot leave the subject without an additional remark. The committee recommend the abolition of the present "two-headed system," and the employment of a sub-Master in one of the departments, at a reduced salary. We hope, in this latter suggestion, they may be doomed to perpetual disappointment. We hope never to see the day, when a Master will be employed in the Boston schools, at a less salary than \$1500. Keep the salary up, and the Masters, in point of qualifications, will eventually come up to it. Let that down, and those of them who have any room to fall, will fall to it, as surely as water will find its level.

We have no room, in this number, for a notice of the Report on the Writing Schools.

There was a correct knowledge of human nature evinced by Diogenes, who, being at Olympia, and seeing, at the celebrated festival, some young men of Rhodes magnificently arrayed, smiled and exclaimed,—“This is pride ;” and afterwards, meeting with some Lacedemonians in a mean and sordid dress, said,—“And this is also pride.”

We never knew persons disposed to scorn the humble, who were not themselves fit objects of scorn to the humblest.—*Noah*.

*Since the above was written, we learn that, in regard to the Johnson school, a “bill of divorcement” has been granted by the committee.

[For the Common School Journal.]

MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

Having considered the Addition and Subtraction of numbers, (*ante*, page 22,) let us now pass on to the Multiplication and Division of them.

And here it may be remarked that the writer makes no pretensions to originality in these articles. The processes pointed out by him are but a moiety of those which may be discovered, should the attention of practical teachers be drawn to this subject. Let every one search for those laws which, he must admit, lie thickly strown around him, even in this minor branch of science, and the sum of these little, and, individually, but slightly important truths, will amount to something of practical importance and utility.

Not stopping to consider the manner of multiplying by 10, 100, &c., suppose we have a number to be multiplied by 5. $5 = \frac{1}{2} \times 10$. If we divide the number by 2 and take the quotient 10 times, we shall evidently do the same as to multiply by 5. The last mentioned operation can be done by annexing a cipher to the quotient. Because $50 = \frac{1}{2} \times 100$, and also $500 = \frac{1}{2} \times 1000$. If we have a number to be multiplied by 50, we can divide by 2 and annex two ciphers to the quotient; or if to be multiplied by 500, divide by 2 and annex three ciphers to the quotient. Generally, then, to multiply by $5 \times 10^n = \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{(n+1)}$, divide the number by 2 and annex to the quotient $(n+1)$ ciphers. Examples:

| | | | | | |
|--------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------|
| How many are | 5×22 ? | $122 \div 2 = 61$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> | 610 |
| " " " | 5×438 ? | $438 \div 2 = 219$. | " " " | " | 2190 |
| " " " | 5×387 ? | $387 \div 2 = 193\frac{1}{2}$ | " " " | " | 1935 |
| " " " | 50×684 ? | $684 \div 2 = 342$ | " two " | " | 34200 |
| " " " | 50×349 ? | $349 \div 2 = 174\frac{1}{2}$ | " " " | " | 17450 |
| " " " | 500×137 ? | $137 \div 2 = 68\frac{1}{2}$ | " three " | " | 68500 |

To multiply by $3\frac{1}{3}$. $3\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \times 10$. If we take one third of the number 10 times, we shall by this means multiply by $3\frac{1}{3}$.

$33\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \times 100$. If we wish to take a number $33\frac{1}{3}$ times, we can accomplish our object by taking one third of the number 100 times; and, to multiply by $\frac{1}{3} \times 10^n$, to one third of the number annex n ciphers. Examples:

| | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| How many are | $3\frac{1}{3} \times 48$? | $48 \div 3 = 16$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> | 160 |
| " " " | $3\frac{1}{3} \times 68$? | $68 \div 3 = 22\frac{2}{3}$ | " " " | " | 226 $\frac{2}{3}$ |
| " " " | $33\frac{1}{3} \times 42$? | $42 \div 3 = 14$ | " two ciphers. | " | 4200 |
| " " " | $33\frac{1}{3} \times 28$? | $28 \div 3 = 9\frac{1}{3}$ | " " " | " | 933 $\frac{1}{3}$ |
| " " " | $133\frac{1}{3} \times 654$? | $654 \div 3 = 218$ | " three " | " | 218000 |

It is evident that in these examples, as also in the others, the operation of multiplying can be done first, and then the quotient divided; as for example:

How many are $133\frac{1}{3} \times 654$? $654 \times 1000 = 654000$. $654000 \div 3 = 218000$

To multiply by 15. $15 = 10 \times 1\frac{1}{2}$. If $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the number be taken, and to the product a cipher be annexed, we shall by this means take our number 15 times. Suppose we wish to multiply by 150. $150 = 100 \times 1\frac{1}{2}$. If we take the number 1 $1\frac{1}{2}$ times and annex to the quotient two ciphers, we shall then have taken our number 150 times. This rule can be generalized, like the former. Examples:

| | | | | |
|--------------|---------------------|---|-------------------|------------------|
| How many are | 15×420 ? | $420 + 4 \frac{3}{4} \times 10 = 630$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> 6300 |
| " " " | 15×372 ? | $372 + 3 \frac{1}{2} \times 2 = 558$. | " " " | 5580 |
| " " " | 150×28 ? | $28 + 2 \frac{8}{10} = 42$. | " two ciphers. | 4200 |
| " " " | 150×49 ? | $49 + 4 \frac{9}{10} = 73 \frac{1}{2}$ | " " " | 7350 |
| " " " | 1500×286 ? | $286 + 2 \frac{8}{10} \times 6 = 429$. | " three " | 429000 |

To multiply a number by 2 1-2. $2 \frac{1}{2} = 1 \frac{1}{2}$. If we take one fourth of the number, and to the quotient annex a cipher, we multiply by 2 1-2. $25 = 1 \frac{1}{4}$. If one fourth of a number be taken, and to the quotient two ciphers be annexed, the number will then be taken 25 times; and, generally, to multiply by $1 \frac{1}{4}$, to one fourth of the number annex n ciphers. Examples:

| | | | | |
|--------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| How many are | $2 \frac{1}{2} \times 460$? | $460 \div 4 = 115$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> 1150 |
| " " " | 25×268 ? | $268 \div 4 = 67$. | " two ciphers. | 6700 |
| " " " | 25×423 ? | $423 \div 4 = 105 \frac{3}{4}$ | " " " | 10575 |
| " " " | 25×77 ? | $77 \div 4 = 19 \frac{1}{4}$ | " " " | 1925 |
| " " " | 250×26 ? | $26 \div 4 = 6 \frac{1}{2}$ | " three " | 6500 |
| " " " | 250×417 ? | $417 \div 4 = 104 \frac{1}{4}$ | " " " | 104250 |

To multiply a number by 7 1-2. $7 \frac{1}{2} = 10 \times \frac{3}{4}$. If three fourths of a number be taken, and to the quotient a cipher be annexed, the number will be multiplied by 7 1-2. To multiply by 75. $75 = 100 \times \frac{3}{4}$. We annex two ciphers to three fourths of the number, &c. Examples:

| | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|--|-------------------|-----------------|
| How many are | $7 \frac{1}{2} \times 96$? | $3 \cdot 4$ of $96 = 72$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> 720 |
| " " " | 75×52 ? | $3 \cdot 4$ of $52 = 39$. | " two ciphers. | 3900 |
| " " " | 75×67 ? | $3 \cdot 4$ of $67 = 50 \frac{1}{4}$. | " " " | 5025 |
| " " " | 750×564 ? | $3 \cdot 4$ of $564 = 423$ | " three " | 423000 |
| " " " | 750×513 ? | $3 \cdot 4$ of $513 = 384 \frac{3}{4}$ | " " " | 513750 |

To multiply by 20, 30, 40, &c., by 200, 300, 400, &c. The numbers in the first of these sets are the products of 2, 3, 4, &c., by 10. If a number be taken 2, 3, 4, &c. times, and a cipher be annexed to the product, the number will be taken 20, 30, 40, &c. times. The numbers in the second set are the products of 2, 3, 4, &c., by 100. If a number be taken 2, 3, 4, &c. times, and two ciphers be annexed to the product, the result is 200, 300, 400, &c. times the number, &c. Examples:

| | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| How many are | 20×242 ? | $2 \times 242 = 484$. | Annex one cipher. | <i>Ans.</i> 4840 |
| " " " | 30×49 ? | $7 \times 49 = 147$. | " " " | 1470 |
| " " " | 700×26 ? | $7 \times 26 = 182$. | " two ciphers. | 18200 |
| " " " | 800×41 ? | $8 \times 41 = 328$. | " " " | 32800 |

Suppose we wish to take a number 19 times. Observe that 19 is one less than 20. If, by the preceding rule, the number be taken 20 times, and, from that product, once the number be subtracted, then we shall have 19 times the number. But as we wish to write as few figures as possible, so as to have the less work to do, let us, instead of writing out the work thus, for example: 68×19 , $65 \times 20 = 1360$

68

write it in this manner: 1360
68

1292,

1292. By this means, we avoid writing the number 68 twice. Examples:

| | | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------|--|-----------------|
| | 1380 | | 2590 | | 8160 |
| How many are | 29×46 | How many are | 69×37 | | 79×102 |
| | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> |
| | Ans. 1334 | | Ans. 2553 | | Ans. 8058 |

If we wish to multiply by 21, 31, 41, &c.; observe that these numbers, 21, 31, 41, &c., by a previous method, take 20, 30, 40, &c. times the number, and *once more*. Examples :

| | | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------|--|-----------------|
| | 720 | | 3120 | | 6160 |
| How many are | 21×36 | How many are | 61×52 | | 81×77 |
| | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> |
| | Ans. 756 | | Ans. 3172 | | Ans. 6137 |
| | 1520 | | 3060 | | 2490 |
| How many are | 41×38 | " " | 91×34 | | 31×83 |
| | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> |
| | Ans. 1558 | | Ans. 3094 | | 2578 |

NOTE.—" means the power to which 10 is raised, or the number of times it is taken as a factor. B. N. S.

He who brings to me an opening to do a good act, is a thorough benefactor to me ;—not he, so much, who does to me an outward act of kindness.

The poor good man had no money to pay me, but told me a tale of wretchedness, and asked me if I would be willing, without pay, to do the needed service. My heart was moved. I answered, yes. I went with him to the wretched man, and did what was needed. I came home richer in happiness than my year's gain in money had made me. I found I had never been so well paid for any service as for that. I had wondered before, how the poor philanthropist could always seem so happy. And now he had taught me the secret of his glad life. And now I am glad too, and am rich.

No labor is ever so well paid as kindness. Do a kind act and thou shalt know this ; otherwise thou mayst never know it, and die a mercenary. If thou art in a gainful pursuit, in the midst of the civilization of the city, pray, night and morning, that this knowledge may be given thee ; for thou art, by the lot of thy life, less likely to have the blessing of this knowledge than the wandering Arab of the desert, whom thou callest "*barbarian*." The way of his daily life leads him to suffer, and leads those who suffer to him. Not so thine, in the midst of thy abundance. The proverbs of the desert shall be rich in the secret joy of acts of kindness. The literature of the city is quite barren of that joy.—*Prisoners' Friend*.

Nothing is more ridiculous than to be serious about trifles, and to be trifling about serious matters.

The following paragraph embodies a moral which might be studied with profit by some of our great military agitators. Many of our readers will remember the Ettrick Shepherd's definition of a war: "If ye'll let us alane, we'll let you alane." We are told that in the year 1005, some soldiers of the commonwealth of Modena, ran away with a bucket from a public well, belonging to the State of Bologna. This article might have been worth a shilling; but it produced a bloody quarrel, which was worked up into a bloody war. Henry, the king of Sardinia, for the Emperor, or Henry the second, assisted the Modenese to keep possession of the bucket; and in one of the battles he was made prisoner. His father, the Emperor, offered a chain of gold that would encircle Bologna, which is seven miles in compass, for his son's ransom, but in vain. After twenty-two years imprisonment, his father being dead, he pined away and died. His monument is still extant in the church of the Dominicans. This fatal bucket is still exhibited in the tower of the cathedral of Modena, enclosed in an iron cage.—*N. Y. Mirror.*

CLASSES of READERS.—Coleridge, in a lecture, twenty years ago, divided readers into four classes. The first he compared to the hour-glass, their reading being as the sand,—it runs in and out, leaving not a vestige behind. A second class, he said, resembled a sponge, which imbibes every thing, and retains it in nearly the same state,—only a little dirtier. A third class, he likened to a jelly bag, which allows all that is pure to pass away, and retains only the refuse and dregs. The fourth class, he compared to the slaves, in the diamond mines of Golconda, who, casting aside all that is worthless, preserve only the pure gem.

Purity of heart depends much, so far as our moral agency is concerned, on keeping the imagination free from the secret contemplation of forbidden objects. Keep the door of the imagination barred against unlawful visitors, and the citadel of the soul is safe.

Human knowledge is a proud pillar, but it is built in the midst of a desert of ignorance, and those who have ascended the highest, have only gained a more extended view of the waste.

T E A R S .

No radiant pearl which crested fortune wears,
 No gem, that, twinkling, hangs on beauty's ears ;
 Not the bright stars which night's blue arch adorn,
 Nor rising sun that gilds the vernal morn,
 Shine with such lustre as the tear that flows
 Down Virtue's manly cheek for others' woes.—*Darwin.*

H A P P I N E S S .

To be good is to be happy. Angels
 Are happier than men, because they're better.
 Guilt is the source of sorrow ; 't is the fiend,
 The avenging fiend, that follows us behind,
 With whips and stings. The blest know none of this,
 But rest in everlasting peace of mind,
 And find the height of all their heaven is goodness.—*Rowe.*

E R R O R S .

Faults in the life, breed errors in the brain ;
 And these reciprocally, those again.
 The mind and conduct mutually imprint,
 And stamp their image in each other's mint.—*Cowper.*

PHYSIOLOGY OF GENIUS.—It was noticed by a writer who was present at a meeting of the British Association, that one feature was nearly universal among the philosophers there assembled ; namely, a certain expansion of the head, which habit teaches us to connect, on all occasions, with superior intellect. This is an observation which we have often made at the meetings of learned societies ; and we have further remarked, that the fact is *more* frequently to be noticed among men of science,—as naturalists, experimental chemists, &c.,—than among purely literary men. Whatever may be said of the internal capacity, the *thickness* of the skull is, we apprehend, no mark of mind either way. That of Buchanan is said to have been as thin as paper. On the other hand, the brain-case of Porson, the first Greek scholar of modern times, was discovered to be exceedingly thick. Gall, on being required to reconcile Porson's tenacious memory with so thick a receptacle for it, is said to have replied, "I have nothing to do with how ideas get into such a skull ; but once in, I will defy them ever to get out again."—*Chambers' Journal.*

✉ *All Communications, Newspapers, and Periodicals, for the Editor, to be addressed to West Newton, Mass.*

[THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL is published semi-monthly, by WILLIAM B. FOWLE, No. 138½ Washington Street, up stairs, (opposite School Street,) Boston. HORACE MANN, Editor. Price, One Dollar a year, payable in advance.]

COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL, EXTRA.

BOSTON, FEBRUARY 15, 1848.—BY WM. B. FOWLE, PUBLISHER.

NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.—As we presume every subscriber to the Journal intends to pay, we earnestly request every one, who has not paid, to enclose the money in a letter, and send it by mail, without waiting to be called upon by a collector. The fact is, our subscribers are so widely scattered that the expense of a collector would far exceed our receipts. Remote subscribers, particularly, are requested no longer to forget us. Subscribers wishing for the New Report of our Board of Education can easily remit the 20 cents in Post Office franks; and, indeed, when current bills are not at hand, the subscription may be sent in the same way. Recollect that the Annual Report is not to be printed in the Journal as heretofore, but an edition has been printed to match the size of the Journal, that they may be bound together.

WILLIAM B. FOWLE.

N. B. The *Journal* goes by mail as a newspaper, the *Extra* goes free. The postage of the Eleventh Report is six cents.

EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS, RETROGRADE.

1. The Editors of a New York Educational Journal are endeavoring to dissuade their neighbors of New Jersey from establishing a State Normal School, and are using all the objections that were used up by the old-school pedagogues and new-school bigots in Massachusetts a few years ago. We have *three arguments* that must knock all their objections in the head, viz.: *Three State Normal Schools*, which are blessing the State. The Journal that is attempting to prevent the State of New Jersey from thus benefitting the teachers, is called, by a strange mistake, "*The Teacher's Advocate!*"

2. The "Massachusetts Teacher," in its second number, has undertaken to ridicule and discourage several of the improvements which the enlightened friends of education have hoped to introduce into our modes of instruction and discipline. It is due to the Zodiac of Editors who volunteered to conduct this new Journal to say, that only two of the "Twelve Signs" were aware of this attempt to extinguish the Sun. The Crab and the Scorpion, are curious animals, one always preferring to go back-

ward, and the other stinging itself to death when it cannot have its own way.

3. The city of Salem, and the town of Chelsea, have lately been persuaded to lay aside the Common School Speller, of Wm. B. Fowle, and adopt in its stead the Gradual Speller of David B. Tower, which is merely an unauthorized abridgement of it, not retaining any of its good points. The State Superintendent of Michigan, in his late Annual Report, says truly of such changes, "This is an unwise policy. When a book is in use in a School, it should be continued until a better one can supply its place,—one too that is worth *buying*." Alluding to the practice of tempting committees to change books by promising a new book for the old one, the same Superintendent says, "No honest and liberal minded man will ever resort to such measures to introduce a book, and good citizens should never allow themselves to be thus bribed." The Common School Speller was not *adopted* in such haste.

4. The *Christian Observatory* still persists in slandering the West Newton *Female Normal School*, although the Board of Education have unanimously declared its charges to be false. This *Observatory* seems to be the resort of Bats, who are only competent to answer the question, "Watchman, what of the NIGHT?" The *moral night* cometh by such agency.

EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS, FORWARD.

1. An educational Journal called the *Radix* has been started at Richmond, Va. We hope the *Root* will strike deep, last long, and be well nourished.

2. A new School Journal is proposed in Maine, under the auspices of Mr. Crosby, the State Superintendent. We were informed of this fact by the withdrawal of one of our Maine subscribers, who says *he cannot afford to patronize both Journals!* We believe him,—he never will be able. He never ought to be. Another teacher, in Connecticut, wishes her Journal to be no longer sent, *because a neighboring teacher takes it, and allows her to read his copy.* "Blessed are the poor in spirit."

3. The Teachers of the Great State of Ohio have lately had a Convention, and organized a State Association, which is to meet at Dayton in June next. They cut out business like earnest workmen, but they forgot to oppose the State System of Common Schools, and to set up a Journal in opposition to the excellent one already established at Columbus! They have yet to learn how we do such things in New York and Massachusetts! The Executive Committee appointed various Sub-Committees to report on many subjects of great interest, and provided for a thorough course of Lectures; and, surely, if Dayton were as near to our abode as the great cause of Free Schools is to our heart, "we should be there (next June) to see!"

4. The Legislature of Massachusetts has already begun to move in regard to several improvements suggested by the Board of Education in their late Report. The distribution of the School Fund to the Towns, *in proportion to the actual attendance of the pupils*, will do much to remove the great evil of absence. Every clergyman in the State should read this last Report of the Board from his pulpit, and preach its doctrines in every dwelling. Education, now the last, must be the first concern.

ALGEBRA IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

Many years ago, we called in question the utility of teaching *Algebra* to girls in our Public Schools, but we have seen no movement, that seemed to coincide with our experience, until now. The following extract from the latest report of the Boston School Committee seems to take a common-sense view of this matter :

"The practical influence of the (double-headed) system," say the Committee, "upon the studies in the Schools, is, in many instances, mischievous. It sacrifices fully one third of the whole time of the children in the third and fourth classes. * * * * The children are thus left, for nearly two hours a day, unoccupied, and to form habits of idleness and mischief. The evil is not confined to the lower classes. In the first class, it has led to the absurd phenomenon of girls' studying *Algebra* at the moment when they can find no time for physiology or the principles of domestic economy ; solving equations, before they have become acquainted with the importance of pure air or a healthy digestion ; studying the binomial theorem, while they are ignorant of the laws of their own structure ; as if it were more probable that they would become practical engineers than practical housewives ; or makers of roads and bridges, than mothers, nurses and teachers of children. We should not be understood as undervaluing *Algebra*, in its place. We would only say, that, until many other studies, not now touched upon, shall have been thoroughly learned, it is entirely out of place in our Schools for girls—having but a distant and remote relation to any of their future duties."

When our citizens see such statements made by a School Committee, they naturally inquire why are such abuses continued by those who see them, and have full power to correct them ?

THE BOSTON SCHOOLS.

Teachers at a distance are often desirous to know something of the Boston System of Schools, and we often receive letters of inquiry. It may be well, therefore, to say, briefly, that the City has one Classical School in which Latin and Greek are taught, and one English High School, for Boys only, the Girls being compensated for the want of such a High School, by being al-

lowed to stay two years longer than the boys in the Grammar Schools.

There are about twenty Grammar Schools, whose organization is various, although the branches taught in them are similar. A few of these Schools like those in the Country districts, are composed of boys and girls, and are all the time under the same teachers. A few consist entirely of boys or entirely of girls, under the same teachers. Some consist of boys, who half the time are in one room, under one set of teachers, and half the time in a different room, pursuing other studies under other teachers. The Schools are very large, and, as most of them occupy two stories of immense buildings, it would be fair to say there are forty, rather than twenty Grammar Schools.

All the schools above mentioned are under the care of the School Committee, a body consisting of two members chosen from each of twelve wards, with the Mayor and President of the Common Council, *ex officio* ; in all, twenty-six persons.

Each room of the Grammar Schools has a head teacher, whose salary is \$1500 a year ; or, rather, each room *had* a head until very recently, when the Committee organized two Schools by placing one head teacher over two rooms, with a submaster subordinate to him with a salary of \$1200. Besides these masters, some of these Schools have a grade of teachers called ushers, whose salary is \$800. And in addition to these male teachers, in each room there are three female assistants, who are paid \$300 a year. These females teach all that the masters do.

The Head masters are annually appointed, in August, by the School Committee, to whom direct application must be made. This application is usually enclosed in a letter, addressed to Sam'l F. McCleary, City Clerk, accompanied by recommendations. Teachers reappointed are not examined ; but new candidates are examined on some appointed day, by a sub-committee of the Board. The nature of the examination may be learned from the questions in Vol. ix. of the Common School Journal.

Ushers are generally selected by the masters, and proposed to the Board for appointment. Application is usually made to the master, or the sub-committee of the particular school, which consists of three members of the Board. The masters also select the female assistants, and although they do not appoint them, their recommendation generally secures an appointment.

No vacancy, except that of a master, is advertised. A strong effort is making to have an independent master in every room, whose pupils shall be all the time under his care. Formerly, some difference was made in the requirements of masters of the Reading and masters of the Writing schools ; but the probability is that no such difference will hereafter be made, other branches than writing and arithmetic being taught in the Writing schools. A collegiate education is not indispensable, some of the best teachers not having had this advantage.

Next to the Grammar Schools come the Intermediate Schools. About a dozen of these have been lately established to educate children too large for the Primary Schools, and not qualified to enter the Grammar Schools. These are taught by females, who receive \$300 a year. Besides these, there are about one hundred and fifty Primary Schools, taught by females, there being but one teacher to each school, and each school in a separate room. In these Primaries, Reading, Spelling, with a little Vocal Music, elementary Arithmetic, and perhaps a little Drawing, are taught. Before long, Music and Drawing will probably be essential requisites in every teacher. In the Intermediates, a little Geography is added. These teachers are appointed by the Committee-men of the District. The Primary Committee is a separate Board from the Committee of the Grammar Schools, and this Primary Board is much more numerous, there being a Committee-man for every Primary and Intermediate school. These schools are divided into a dozen or more Districts. The Committee of each District elect a Chairman, and all vacancies in the schools of a District are filled by the District Committee, to whose Chairman or Secretary application should be made.

When there is a vacancy in the Committee of a District, the others nominate a member to the whole Board, and once a year the names of the whole Primary Board are laid before the Committee of the Grammar School, whose approval is necessary to their legal existence.

The Primary Board do not advertise vacancies in their schools. These, however, not unfrequently occur, and it is not unusual for teachers wishing to obtain one of these schools, to file an application with some District Committee, or with the Secretary of the whole Board. Then, should a vacancy occur, and the candidate promise well, she would be notified and examined. No teacher is appointed in these schools without a careful examination, and, of late, teachers educated at a Normal School, other things being equal, have been preferred.

WORCESTER'S LARGE DICTIONARY.

The able and indefatigable Editor of Todd's Johnson, and Webster's octavo, has at last given us a Dictionary of his own, which has all the good qualities of the others, and very much that is peculiar to itself. We have no hesitation in saying that this New Dictionary must become the Standard in this country, and even in England, for it is certain that in the mother country they have nothing to be compared with it for accuracy and completeness. Its only rival in this country is the revised edition of Webster, but this is still deformed with many of Webster's peculiarities and can never prevail. The Orthography of Worcester is that of the best presses in Old and New England, and its citation of authorities for the pronunciation of words, where there is any dispute, enables us

to see where the weight of authority lies. The Introduction to this great National work should be studied by every teacher, and indeed we do not see how any teacher, who deserves the name, can be willing for a moment to be without this complete guide to the English Tongue. Price, \$3 50.

FAMILIAR DIALOGUES.

BY WM. B. FOWLE.

This work is intended to supply a defect which exists in every First Class Reading Book with which the author is acquainted. Every teacher knows that no class of Reading lessons so brings out the powers of children, and so surely leads to animated and natural reading as *Dialogues*. These are generally better understood by the young, than other lessons; and, where they are freely used by teachers, there is little or no need of rules and marks, and figures, and directions. Where the school is supplied with Pierpont's First Class Book, or any other good reading book, a dozen of these Dialogues should be purchased for the school by the Committee, to be used occasionally under the direction of the Teacher, to season the ordinary lessons, and put spirit into the pupils. The promise of such a lesson, occasionally, will do more to promote diligence and good behaviour than any corporal chastisement can effect. Trade price, 67 cents.

A large portion of the pieces are original, and few school exhibitions take place in which some of them are not introduced.

FOWLE'S FRENCH GRAMMAR, AND FRENCH FIRST CLASS READER.

This GRAMMAR is specially prepared for the use of Americans who teach French, or for pupils wishing to instruct themselves. The advance from principle to principle is gradual, and every rule is illustrated by suitable practical exercises. A system of Pronunciation, complete as well as simple; a new and distinct arrangement of the Verbs; and a very easy and complete process for learning the gender of French nouns, are peculiar to this Grammar, which is gladly seized by such American teachers as have seen it. Trade price, 67 cents.

The FRENCH READER is the most varied and interesting Selection yet prepared. The first part contains easy Prose pieces; then come Dialogues in prose from Moliere; then fables and short poems from the best French poets, ancient and modern; and, finally, Dialogues in verse from the most eminent French writers. Teachers or Students in search of choice specimens, and a great variety of them, from writers of the highest reputation, will find this selection all they want. It is not a collection of extracts from long and tedious pieces, but *whole pieces*, short, piquant, and calculated to improve the heart as well as to delight the intellect. Trade price, 67 cents.

THE PRIMARY READER.

BY WM. B. FOWLE.

The Publisher of this little reading book intended to furnish a book which should contain a supply of lively Dialogues and spirited pieces, calculated to lead children to natural and animated reading. In making the book, he proceeded upon the ground that, if children understand what they read, and are induced by the character of the pieces to read naturally, they will become good readers, of course. Such is the peculiar character of the pieces in this book, more than half of which were written expressly for it, that hundreds of teachers who cannot get rid of the book already introduced into their Schools, keep a dozen of these to lend to a class, not only to reward the children, but to lighten their own labor, and ensure success. Teachers wanting Dialogues and pieces fit to be recited by little children will find them here. 12 1-2 cts.

NEW CHART OF ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

W. B. F. has just published a large Sheet of the English Sounds, to be hung up in School Rooms. All the Vowel and Consonant Sounds are given in large type to be read at a distance by large classes. Besides being more simply arranged than other Charts, its price brings it within the reach of every one. Price 25 cents, or, on cloth, 50 cents.

This *Chart* will please the friends of Phonography, for, although it says nothing of the new science, it takes advantage of its principles, and so exhibits the sounds of our language that the child will be prepared for the reception of phonography, should it ever be taught in our Schools. Whether it ever be so taught or not, it is certain that the late attempt to introduce it has called attention to the elementary sounds of our language, which had been too long neglected, and no school apparatus is now considered complete without such a Chart of Sounds, and no teacher fully competent, who does not teach by one.

POPE'S ESSAY ON MAN.

W. B. F. has published the only correct edition of this Poem for Grammatical Analysis in Schools. Price \$1.20 a dozen.

OUTLINE MAPS.

Besides publishing his own GRAND OUTLINE MAP OF MASSACHUSETTS, W. B. F. is agent for the sale of

PELTON'S MAGNIFICENT SERIES OF MAPS,

Consisting of six, highly finished, mounted, varnished and colored, and embracing every country of the Globe. This Great Series, with Fowle's Map of Massachusetts, has been adopted in the Grammar Schools of Boston, and, wherever there is room and money enough, it is always preferred. The price of Pelton's Series is \$25.

MITCHELL'S PRACTICAL OUTLINE MAPS.

These Maps, not so large as Pelton's, have, however, their peculiar advantages. They are carefully colored and pasted on cloth, and being 23 in number, may be used in large or small rooms. The *Scale* of these Maps is generally larger than that of any other series, and those who cannot afford to buy Pelton's, or who have not room for them, should by all means obtain these. The price of a set is \$15.

To those unacquainted with this new apparatus for teaching Geography, it may be well to say, that these maps contain a bold and distinct outline of every country on the globe, on which is depicted every important river, sea, lake, strait, and other division of *water*; every island, peninsula, mountain, and other division of *land*. The boundaries of every country are distinctly colored, and the location of every large town is marked; but no names are given to any thing upon the map.

All that is permanent, therefore, and, of course, all that the child should remember, may be taught on these maps from the *Key* which accompanies each set, or learned from the geographies usually found in schools, and then recited from these maps. The wonderful effect of this mode of instruction and reviewing upon the activity and practical knowledge of pupils, is acknowledged by all teachers who are not behind the age.

CORNELL'S NEW GLOBE.

By a peculiar method of mounting, for which a patent has been secured, the phenomena of *day* and *night*, and of the *seasons* are exhibited so that the simplest child may comprehend them. The latitude and longitude, length of days, time of sunrise, difference of time, &c. &c. are also exhibited, and nothing more is wanted in our District Schools, to give those general ideas of the Globe, which are necessary to enable children to understand the nature and use of Maps. Price, \$3 00.

TEACHERS' AGENCY.

WM. B. FOWLE, having been repeatedly requested by Teachers to aid them in obtaining Schools, and by Committees to aid them in procuring Teachers, is induced to undertake this task, for which his long experience as a teacher, his extensive acquaintance with schools, committee men and teachers, and his business position, seem to qualify him.

Persons, therefore, wishing for schools or for teachers, are requested to give such information as will enable W. B. F. to satisfy both parties. As this negotiation must be attended with some trouble and expense, W. B. F. will be obliged to confine his assistance to such teachers and committees as are subscribers to the Common School Journal, or are ready to become such. *All letters must be post paid.*